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The Journal of Educational Sociology

A Magazine of Theory and Practice

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The Journal of Educational Sociology

A Magazine of Theory and Practice

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A department presenting a short biography of each writer in the current number of THE JOURNAL for the purpose of making the readers better acquainted with the contributors of the articles.

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EDITORIAL

The twentieth century stands out in marked contrast to all other similar periods in history as one of cultural and social change. This change has very naturally been most evident in the material aspects of culture and less in the spiritual or nonmaterial, but even here we find the beginnings of changes that are revolutionary. Noteworthy among these are the readjustments in education which lie at the very basis of our cultural life.

A great deal of attention has been given not only to the theory underlying elementary education but also to the practices in this field, and, at least for the last decade, secondary education in all its phases has been undergoing rapid reconstruction. The recent development of the nursery school characterizes our educational development. It seeks to provide adequate care and training to children of the preschool age. The need for such a provision in our social scheme has been influenced by the entrance of women into industrial, professional, and other vocational activities. The changed conditions of living, the demands of modern life, the problem of child education, and family readjustments have all contributed to the development of the nursery school.

More recently, interest has been centered upon the college aspect of education and we find already more than four hundred junior colleges scattered throughout the country, which seek to broaden the scope of the first two years of college life and more adequately to equip young people for later activities. This change in the junior college has necessarily brought about a redirection in the function and purpose of the senior college and now we find even the graduate school coming in for its share of attention.

It would appear that the graduate school itself might witness the same change that has taken place elsewhere. Some five years ago Dean Withers of the School of Education of New York University outlined a plan for the training of teachers in college which is the most comprehensive that has so far been presented. Its essential features are as follows:

1. Provision for three-year graduate curricula leading to the degree of doctor of philosophy
2. The fundamental spirit and purpose of these curricula to be the preparation of men and women to become teachers in colleges, universities, and professional schools
3. Careful selection, on a basis of scholarship and personal fitness, of the students who are to be admitted to these curricula
4. The thesis required for the doctor's degree to be in some field of college and university or professional education with the intention that the studies made shall contribute to the improvement of teaching and administration in higher education

More recently other colleges have become interested in the problem of training college teachers. A recent statement of President Hutchins of the University of Chicago indicates the nature and degree of this interest.¹

¹ Bulletin, of the Association of American Colleges, pp. 439 and 400.

The graduate schools of art, literature, and science are, of course, in large part professional schools. They are producing teachers. A minority of their students become research workers. Yet the training for the doctorate in this country is almost uniformly training in the acquisition of a research technique, terminating in the preparation of a so-called original contribution to knowledge. Whether the rigors of this process exhaust the student's creative powers, whether the teaching schedules in most colleges give those powers no scope, or whether most teachers are without them, is uncertain. What is certain is that most doctors of philosophy become teachers and not productive scholars as well. Their productivity ends with the dissertation.

Upon the problems of undergraduate teaching his creative work should be done. Such a system places a new responsibility upon the departments—that of developing ideas in college education. But it is a responsibility which I am sure they will accept in view of the history and position of the University of Chicago. Such a system means, too, research people, the doctor of philosophy remaining what it chiefly is today, a degree for college teachers. But however opinions may differ on details, I am convinced, as are the deans of the Graduate Schools, the deans of the Colleges, and the chairmen of the department of education, that some program recognizing the dual objectives of research men must be tried at the University of Chicago.

President Hutchins's discussion of the training of college teachers presents two points which deserve emphasis and with which our policy in the New York University School of Education is in hearty accord. The first is that the present Ph.D. degree which has established itself in practice as a teaching rather than as a research degree should be retained for those who are to become college and university teachers and that another degree should be created for the graduate student who definitely plans to become a research worker. The School of Education policy from the beginning has emphasized this and in the directing of students' programs has made definite changes in both subject matter and professional programs in keeping with such a policy.

The second point to which reference was made is "that upon the problems of undergraduate teaching" the college teacher's "creative work should be done." This makes obvious an old truth given utterance by President Eliot

years ago at Harvard but all too little recognized in university administration or graduate-school policy; viz., that creative work *can* be done in teaching as well as research. It is the policy in the School of Education not only to emphasize this fact but to encourage graduate students to seek their problems for the doctor's dissertation in the fields of college teaching and college curricula. It is a significant fact that colleges and universities have at last taken an experimental attitude towards these problems and that university research no longer fears the utilitarian taboo.



AN ERROR IN THE JANUARY NUMBER

An unfortunate error was made in the printing of the two formulae for the standard deviation of a difference in the article by C. C. Peters and C. N. Rabold in the January number of *THE JOURNAL*, page 304. All *equals* and *plus* signs were omitted, due probably to the fact that these signs could not be written with a typewriter and their insertion by hand later was forgotten. The formula for discrete series making a normal distribution should read:

$$\overline{\text{S.D.}}_{\text{dif}} = \sqrt{\overline{\text{S.D.}}_{\text{av.}_1}^2 + \overline{\text{S.D.}}_{\text{av.}_2}^2}$$

For dichotomous series the formula is:

$$\overline{\text{S.D.}}_{\text{dif}} = \sqrt{\frac{p_1 q_1}{n_1} + \frac{p_2 q_2}{n_2}}$$

These are important formulae of which considerable use should be made by educational sociologists.

MALADJUSTMENTS BETWEEN HIGH SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES DUE TO DIFFERENCE IN AIMS AND METHODS AND SUGGESTED CORRECTIONS

LUTHER SHEELEIGH CRESSMAN

American life seems thoroughly committed to the idea of the desirability of universal education at least through the secondary system. But an increasing proportion of high-school graduates find their way as freshmen to our higher institutions. Here in their first half year in the new environment they find great difficulty of adjustment. Any one who has had experience teaching both upperclassmen and freshmen in college realizes that however the colleges and the high schools combine to choose the college entrant the great mass of freshmen is in a new world both socially and academically. It is in the discussion of the conflict between the two methods of studying and teaching employed in the high schools and the colleges that we are here interested.

"Although only a century old its [the public high school's] enrollment has reached approximately 4,000,000 pupils. Estimating the number of persons of high-school age in the United States [those of ages 15, 16, 17, and 18] as 7,779,070 for 1926, these schools have enrolled 48.2 per cent of those who might be expected to attend high schools. Private high schools and preparatory departments of higher institutions enroll another 4.8 per cent, so that 53 per cent of all pupils of high-school age are now enrolled in secondary schools."¹ In 1926 there were enrolled in colleges, universities, and professional schools, 767,263 students, or 18.6 per cent of the number in the secondary schools. If we add to this the enrollment for the same year in teach-

¹ Statistics of Public High Schools, 1925-26. U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, No. 33, 1927, p. 10.

ers colleges and normal schools, 270,206, we find that 25 per cent of the total number enrolled in secondary schools are enrolled in institutions of higher learning.² There can be no doubt, then, that one of the main aims of secondary education must be preparation for college, mean that what it may. We shall return to that later.

The problem presents itself to us with particular sharpness when we consider what happens to the large graduating class of enthusiastic, adventurous, timorous youths who finds itself in the early autumn days in this new world of the college—a strange, bewildering place, so unlike its dreams, “A study made in 1924 by Registrar Hugh H. Caldwell of the University of Georgia shows a mortality of 32 per cent among freshmen of 107 colleges. The deans in the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, in a study covering twelve States, 8985 students, 136 colleges, and 585 high schools, reported that 2756 [September, 1922] freshmen failed in 5124 courses, a percentage of 30.8.”³ The astounding comment of the committee on the relation between high school and college of the National Education Association in its report on this condition is: “As a matter of fact, nobody is at fault. We have a garden. The soil is rich. Weeds always appear in such a soil. The problem is how to get rid of them.”⁴

Curiously enough, two pages farther, after quoting opinions on the problem of elimination, the committee says: “The facts set forth seem to indicate the need of more careful selection of students and more careful guidance and better teaching of them after they have been selected.”⁵ The latter statement would seem to be more nearly the truth. There is sheer economic waste and spoilage of human energy in maintaining a situation where 30 per cent

² Statistical Survey of Education, 1925-26. U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, No. 12, 1928.

³ The Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association. The Sixth Yearbook, *The Development of the High School Curriculum*, 1928, pp. 140-141.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 140.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 142.

of the raw material must be rejected as unsatisfactory after acceptance. This is still worse in view of our lip service and time devoted to measurement and scientific technique of entrance requirements in schools devoted to the teaching of science. The problem, that of preparation of students for college, the specific problem concerning us here, must in the end be fought out on two fields: (1) that of the kind of teaching in the high school, and (2) the kind of training given to our students who are to become teachers. It is not so much a question of curriculum or methods of teaching this plan or the other plan; they are but the mechanics which must not be confused with the main objective. The main objective must be how to think and how to work, not what to think; how to secure and scientifically use information, not the mere acquisition of information.*

Most people would agree that there are different systems of teaching in the two classes of institutions. The high school usually devotes itself to textbook study while the college depends to a large degree upon library research, laboratory research, and lectures. The high school, a fairly recent development in our institutional life, has been influenced in shaping its curricula and in teaching by a variety of factors; vocational education, general cultural education for living, and college-entrance preparation have been among the chief demands. And, because any student might, Cinderella-like, pack off to college, the high school must potentially prepare most of its students for college. Then colleges set certain limits below which no candidate for admission might fall. These requirements meant that the candidate had to acquire a certain amount of information. The insistence that a candidate should have been trained to think was conspicuously absent. Our high schools were thus held to a standard of teaching by their taskmaster, the college—

* No one should suppose that we object to the acquisition of information. What we insist upon is that the student should be trained in sound methods of acquiring information and in the development of critical standards by which he can assess the validity of the material once he has secured it.

a standard which in the long run is of little benefit to any one concerned.

The majority of our high schools devote themselves in all their courses to the presentation of information. The change of curricula in the last few years wherein the social studies have gradually displaced the older disciplines has been a hopeful change. Geography, history, sociology, economics, civics or political science in general, form this group. These studies have been held out to be one of the big forward steps. That is still open to argument. There is practically no course which has been in the secondary-school curriculum but could be made enormously more useful to the pupil. In the gradual efforts at revision of curricula we have been putting great emphasis upon the mechanics of teaching. Many papers and ponderous tomes have been written on the objective of teaching in this course and that course, but little effort has been made to clarify the ends or aims of education as a *process of socialization definitely under control*. We are preoccupied with the glorification of the machinery of teaching pupils to secure and retain sufficient information to pass an examination so that they may be certified as having attained to a certain degree of excellence to secure a diploma, working papers, or admission to an institution of higher learning.

It is the unusual high school which presents its students with a course of teaching designed to train them in a method of thinking that will be a useful technique in almost any situation requiring rational analysis. Of course, it is true that not all colleges teach their students in a way calculated to train and stimulate their thinking processes. Too often it is, like high school, the satisfaction of administrative demands. So many credits must be presented for graduation. The necessary courses must be passed. The student must be examined. Because of large classes and administrative demands for examination, more and more true-and-false questions and completion tests come to compose an exam-

ination. These forms almost completely void every effort at thought.

Accepting these statements as true, the fact none the less remains that college generally insists upon a different type of work from the high school. The progressive private school, like the Walden School in New York City, and some few public high schools try in experimental courses to teach their students to be intelligent, to think, to gather information and assess its value, using all their courses in a coherent curriculum. The mere collection of information or even so-called self-expression is not their main objective. Self-expression is of little use if it finds its outlet in a predatory gang or violently antisocial activity. It becomes valuable when placed alongside of other forms of self-expression and alongside of similar forms, for the artist then becomes the critic of his own form and technique.

In a large Western city the course for juniors and seniors in mechanical drawing was organized upon the assumption that the most important thing the youngster could acquire was an acquaintance with the various techniques used in drawing and the problems involved. Practical engineers drew up the course. No engineer ever meets the problems in his professional life that are ordinarily presented to beginning students. His problems are composite ones. To make the work as realistic as possible and a real laboratory course in teaching scientific methods of meeting the problems an architect runs up against, they were given for one term this work: Decide what kind of house you would like to have if you were going to have one and draw the plans; here are your reference materials and we are here to help you and to be consulted; now go to it. So it was later on with steam and then gas engines. When these lads went to the higher institutions they did not have to stand the gaff of academic adjustment.

While the records of even elementary schools show that research of a high order can be carried out by their pupils,

the average primary and secondary high-school library does not exist or is inadequate for much worth-while research. The library is too often a place for the boys and the girls to meet for "dates," or where the bored student may find amusement in the humorous periodicals. Colleges recruited from the smaller high schools usually find a difficult problem in developing the correct attitude towards the library. It tends to become a social hall. Of course, the matter of finance in providing equipment and trained librarians is an important consideration, but the more important consideration is the teaching standard which requires no library to speak of, only a well-memorized textbook and a high regard for the teacher's opinions.

It may be significant in this connection that in the public high schools of the United States the number of volumes per pupil was 4.7 in 1890, 5.2 in 1900, 5.5 in 1910, 5.5 in 1920, and 2.6 in 1926.⁷ Compare with this the student book ratio of the private high schools. The earliest figures available are those for 1910. The number of books per student in the private high schools was 19.3 in 1910, 19.0 in 1920, and 19.8 in 1926.⁸ This difference⁹ may or may not be significant for the possibilities of research in the two types of schools. It would perhaps be worth following up in more detail.

Of course, what is more important than the number of books are the kind of books and the use made of them; and it is the school's failure to train the student in their proper use that is the object of criticism.

⁷ Compiled from Statistics of Public High Schools, 1925-26. U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, No. 33, 1927, Table I, p. 11.

⁸ Compiled from Statistics of Private High Schools and Academies, 1925-26. U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, No. 31, 1927, Table I, p. 9.

⁹ Possibly the difference in library facilities can be accounted for by means of the following: (1) endowment of private schools; (2) greater emphasis upon research in some private schools; (3) comparative isolation of private schools from public libraries; (4) use of public libraries by public schools. It is worth noting that the New York Public Library has been forced by overcrowding to use every means to discourage the use of the Public Library by school children where these books might be supplied by the school. School children using the Library for textbooks and collateral reading left no desks for older research workers.

To sum up the methods of teaching and studying employed in the high school: They are those of the acquisition of certain information determined to a large degree by college-entrance requirements. It is textbook teaching supplemented but little by the use of the library or other materials. The student is not trained to think or to learn methods of collecting and handling data. He is not on his own in any adventure of mental growth. Somebody has been trying to educate him without asking what education is.

The high-school student usually graduates in June and after about three short months finds himself at college. He is away from home, and that is different. He must learn to be a fairly coöperative member of a community different from any he has known before. He goes to his first classes and finds that perhaps no textbook or syllabus is used. A list of reading is given to him and he is told that from time to time he will be examined on that. One is compelled to surmise that some biological transformation has taken place, causing a different specimen to be presented to the college from that which graduated from the high school so confidently and hopefully but three months before. And now what happens to him, bewildered in a strange world? The story is best told in the statistics of failures presented in the earlier part of this paper, about 30 per cent. No one who has gone through college or who has taught there thinks that the work is so amazingly difficult that it can be passed in the first year by but 70 per cent of the 30 per cent of the high-school graduates who enter as freshmen. It probably takes until Christmas for most of the students to discover where they are and what some of it is about. Some never do find out what it is all about but manage to make the grade and remain with the college. It is probable that much of the bewilderment of these early weeks, not to mention the later elimination, could be avoided if the methods

of teaching in college were introduced into the high school, at least for those students who plan to attend college.

The aim of college teaching has been, to a greater degree than that of the high school, the stimulation of thinking, or teaching the student to think, instead of the mere acquisition of certain information. At any rate the method has been variable between departments and even within departments. Much greater freedom has existed in that field than in the high school. But with the increased enrollment in our colleges the factory system of mass production of graduates has been gaining ground with the instruction of the vast body of undergraduates. Then, too, the course of the college is determined to some extent by the desires of the student body and the public. Dean Woodbridge of the graduate faculty of Columbia University in his 1927 report says: "Education is conceived to be a good, not clearly defined, which it is the business of the colleges and universities to disburse." While the disbursement of this good has been to some small degree different in the colleges from that of the high schools (that is, a greater emphasis on learning as a process), there is a profound difference in the methods of making the disbursements to the student body, and this difference in method is a forbidding obstacle which the college freshman has to learn to clear by long, arduous practice. He should have learned to clear it before leaving the high-school doors. The student's problem is defined for him in terms of a new aim of education and particularly of a new method of achieving that aim. While the new aim is not strikingly apparent in all colleges, it is certainly a noticeable fact in any college worth the name. Furthermore, the difference in method of achieving that aim is strikingly apparent almost everywhere.

It is worth while to call attention to some of the outstanding methods of meeting this different aim, for the methods are almost identical in technique in college, ele-

mentary, and secondary schools—of course, with adjustment to the different age levels.

A leading example of the new methods employed in colleges is the honors course. Here, after the first or second year, students of special promise are chosen to work for honors. They organize their work around some major interest but have the free run of the college. They usually may attend lectures or not as they please, and what lectures they please. Then the final test is a comprehensive examination covering the student's familiarity with his field, but particularly his ability to utilize the material of his field.

Harvard University has recently introduced a "reading" period in which students are to have their whole time available for preparation for their finals. This is but a further step along the fine path of education by means of the tutorial and honors systems in which undergraduates are turning out pieces of research that compare favorably with many doctor's dissertations.

The University of Wisconsin recently entered upon an adventurous experiment by which half of the freshman class entered upon a course of study that can best be described as exploratory. Greek civilization of the Periclean age was thoroughly explored in all its ramifications. That same group, using the technique of sociological analyses it had learned in the study of Greek civilization, planned to study another civilization the following year. Can any one doubt that these students, after the completion of the analyses of the second civilization, will not be thoroughly equipped for an "inquiry into the nature of things"?

These examples can be amplified but to no particular advantage. They illustrate with sufficient force the difference in aim becoming manifest in the "crack" departments of the colleges with the different techniques utilized for its achievement, a technique but slightly different from that in the progressive experimental high schools.

What then are the constructive means to be used in the attack upon this problem, the maladjustment between our high schools and colleges in both aim and methods of teaching, a difference to be justified only upon the assumption of a biological change in the individual between the time of graduation and the registration at college? Out of the various obvious approaches there are two that we wish to present now. The first is the gradual extension of both the aim and methods in use in colleges to our high schools, at least to the candidates for college entrance. The second is the definition of *objectives in education instead of in teaching* (there is a vast difference) in our teacher-training schools and universities, and the training of our teachers accordingly.

The first of these problems in a way depends upon the second. It seems, however, that there are certain factors in themselves which must be changed before much of an effective nature can be accomplished, no matter how much our teachers are trained. One of these is the development of a system of college-entrance requirements that will not emphasize the acquisition of a certain amount of knowledge by the candidates for admission, and thus free the high school from the task of pouring certain information into the students' heads to be conscientiously reproduced on the examination sheet. College-entrance requirements must be related to the new aim the colleges are developing and select students who show the capacity to make of learning a process of growth and rational adjustment. When this is the case, the high schools can throw their emphasis in the same direction.

Of course, the minimum high-school curriculum is fixed by the State boards. Beyond this minimum the teacher may adventure freely. One fundamental difficulty at this point, and it seems to be increasing in seriousness rather than decreasing, is that the real people who are organizing

the work for the teachers are the administrators. The teachers as individuals have little hope of protesting against it and are usually weakened by the promotion to administrative duty of those teachers who attain any outstanding success. How this tendency in education, which seems to be almost inevitable with the growth of the educational establishments and the dominance of the machine processes in our civilization, is to be fought is not clear at this time; but be fought it must. If we can get some of our real philosophers of education, some real people who think in terms of racial values into some of the important positions now held by the mechanically trained experts or technicians in methodology and organization, we shall be in a position to expect a shift in emphasis.

As far as the methods of studying in high school are concerned, those in use in the college can be utilized there at any time once the will to do so is evident and the facilities are available. Libraries are necessary, but the school libraries may be supplemented by those of the town. The chief thing that is lacking at present is the will to introduce it both on the part of the teachers and the administrators.

The second approach to the problem is that of the classification of objectives of education and the training of our teachers accordingly. Too much of the definition of objectives today is in terms of limited standards of one course of certain administrative requirements.

Thinkers have been telling us what the aims of education are but the technicians have the upper hand. If we could push the question back far enough most would agree that the real aim of education, at least in a democracy, should be to produce rational thinkers in so far as possible. Yet in how many places is that the avowed object in high schools and even in colleges? Of course, when graduating from high school, many boys and girls, too, are old enough

to marry without their parents' consent. But they are considered too young to be trained to arrive at rational judgments on the subject of matrimony. They are within two or three years of the age when they may vote for their rulers but they are still too young to be trained to rationally criticize the processes of government. The assumptions of democracy are probably more nearly true than those of our educational system. The objectives of education can never be the teaching of the mores but must be the methods and technique of arriving at a rational and critical attitude towards them.

How many can achieve it is open to question, but as an aim or objective of education it is scarcely open to doubt.

If we accept this objective, how can it be made effective in our teacher-training institutions? Some courses of study are more adaptable to it than others, but almost any course can be used. Such courses as anthropology¹⁰ and sociology are particularly adapted to the development of a critical or rational judgment because of the study of various methods used to meet the same problems of adaptation in different societies. Here in particular is probably the best method of training teachers in education as a continuous process of development based upon a critical attitude in the individual. It is, however, dependent upon the teacher here, too, for both sociology and anthropology may be taught in a way that will simply offer material for a further strengthening of our prejudices instead of freeing us from our emotional judgments.¹¹ The teachers, then, must be trained not as at present to acquire sufficient information

¹⁰ Margaret Mead, "The Need for Teaching Anthropology in Normal School and Teachers College," *School and Society*, October 8, 1927, p. 464.

Margaret Mead, *Coming of Age in Samoa*. W. Morrow and Company (New York: 1928), ch. XIII, XIV.

¹¹ "The instructors apparently place great stress upon knowledge of the facts of the various courses offered. Very little attention is directed to the development of techniques, appreciations, attitudes, and ideals. The concept of knowledge is, further, a narrow one, to be obtained seemingly from a relatively narrow range of reading and class discussion."

Earl Underwood Rugg and N. H. Dearborn, "The Social Studies in Teachers Colleges and Normal Schools," Colorado Teachers College Education Series, No. 4, 1928, p. 56.

to pass certain examinations to qualify for a certificate, but they must be trained so as not only to be capable but also to have the will to be inquirers into the nature of things. This must be the attitude they pass on to their students.

It is, then, along these lines that the maladjustment between our secondary-school system and our colleges must be attacked. They are not the only methods, to be sure, but they seem to us to be two of the most hopeful.

AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE READING PRACTICES OF A 7B GROUP OF GIRLS IN A NEW YORK CITY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

LOUISE DAHLBERG

The source of investigation in this study of reading practices has been a group of 40 girls in a 7B¹ class of a Brooklyn elementary school, a group ranging in age from 11 to 15 years.

To obtain the necessary data various means were undertaken. Each child was requested, in the first place, to bring in a list of all books in her home library. Further information concerning the children's awareness of books, magazines, and newspapers, together with their reactions to them, was obtained in the classroom. Statistics concerning the family backgrounds of the children, national, social, economic, and industrial, were gathered from interviews with the children. The survey of physical influences was the result of a personal familiarity with the neighborhood in which these children lived. Eyesight and general health data were collected from school health records.

Although the children themselves are native to this country, the majority of the parents proved to be of foreign birth. Among the eleven nations represented, the Italian and the Polish predominate, nearly one half of the parents being of those nationalities. Only one fourth of the parental group is native to the United States.

The languages spoken in the homes exert their influence, possibly, upon reading practices. It was found that in 10 homes English is the only language used; Italian only is used in three families. All others use a foreign language along with English. Of those parents who speak English plus another language, in most cases English is the less

¹ Of the three classes composing the 7B group, this 7B was supposed to have as its members the brightest of the 7B grade.

fluently spoken. One child naïvely said of her mother, "she speaks *good enough* English." Two others said of their parents, "very little English."

The parents of the children are of the nonprofessional classes: all, save one, are tradesmen, artisans, or laborers; the one exception is a clerk in a bank.

In short, the group dealt with consists of 40 girls whose average age is 13 years, parentage is foreign, and whose background is largely that of laborers and tradesmen, occupations which, as we know, probably leave very little leisure for reading, and in this case, reading which, if indulged in at all, is that of people whose native language is not English.

EXTENT OF THE CHILDREN'S READING

The children were asked to list as exactly as possible the number of books generally read per week and per month. The returns indicated that the average number of books read by each child was $2\frac{1}{4}$ per week and 9.1 per month. Sixteen read one book a week, the others from 0 to 9 per week. It is interesting to note that four girls listed as never reading received school library books repeatedly, just as the others did. Some of the items here given may seem exaggerated; for instance, that of a girl reading 9 books a week. I think they are not, however, for, realizing that children read more some weeks than they do others, they were asked to enumerate the books read during the preceding week—a week of average type without holidays or especial assignments—and I hoped thereby to get a more basic average. Moreover, as they were made thoroughly aware of my intention not to use the data they submitted against them, I think there was complete sincerity in the reports they gave.

The data concerning magazine reading was as follows: 4 were interested not at all, not even in the illustrations; 13 read none, but merely glanced at the illustrations; 10

read one a week regularly. The 13 remaining read two or more magazines a week. Slightly more than half the class, or 57 per cent, was, therefore, interested in magazines.

The class interest in newspapers was greater than that in magazines, for all read parts of some newspaper or other.

The number of visits made by these children to the public libraries was not so favorable.

Number of children	Per cent of class	Number of times visited	Number of children	Per cent of class	Number of times visited
22	55	no visits	4	10	Twice a week
3	7½	less than once a month	1	2½	3 times a week
1	2½	once a month	1	2½	3 or 4 times a week
2	5	fortnightly	1	2½	daily
5	12½	once a week	—		
			40		

THE KIND OF READING

Books

The list of books found below represents the favorite book of each child. The choice of books was limited for some, as they had read only those books found in the school library. Those contained in the school library have been starred.

Name of Book	Number of children	Name of Book	Number of children
*Little Women.....	3	Black Beauty.....	1
Little Lord Fauntleroy.....	1	Merchant of Venice.....	1
*The Prince and the Pauper...	3	Five Little Peppers.....	1
The Little Lame Prince.....	1	Heidi.....	1
Camp Fire Girl Series.....	1	*Uncle Tom's Cabin.....	1
Boy and Girl Scout Series....	1	*Rebecca of Sunnybrook Farm	3
Bunny Brown Books.....	1	A Girl in His House.....	1
Laddie.....	1	Dandelion Cottage.....	1
The Heart of Katie O'Doone...	1	Lady Jane.....	1
*The Girl Next Door.....	5	The Rambling Kid.....	1

Only 30, as is seen above, mention a favorite book. The others mention that they have no particular fondnesses in the way of books.

It is interesting to note that the books designated as favorite by 50 per cent of the children reporting were all in the school library. This may or may not be significant. If this seeming preference for books found in the school library, as opposed to those found outside the school library, exists, it bespeaks the appropriateness of the school-library books and shows that the school can thus be assisted in developing in children good reading habits. If the school library books are the only books read, however, the choice of them as being favorite means less.

When asked to tell the kind of stories they preferred there seemed to be no hesitation.

Type of Story	Number of Children	Per Cent
Fairy Tales.....	20	50
Mystery.....	10	25
Adventure.....	5	12½
Historical and Biographical Stories, or, as they expressed it, "true stories".....	2	5
Nature stories—"stories about stars, flowers, chemicals".....	2	5
Sea Stories.....	1	2½
Total	40	

Magazines

In the quest for information concerning the type and distribution of the magazines read, I used two main divisions: (1) a list of magazines available in the homes and (2) a list of those sought, but not in the home. In considering those of the first group, those available in the home, three divisions were made: those regularly subscribed for, those sometimes found, and their designation of favorite magazines.

Some of those regularly subscribed for by members of their families are as follows:

Name of Magazine	Number	Name of Magazine	Number
True Story.....	11	Liberty.....	2
Photoplay.....	3	Love Story.....	2
Ladies' Home Journal.....	3	American Girl.....	1
Saturday Evening Post.....	2	Breezy Stories.....	1
Mother Knows Best.....	2	None subscribed for.....	10
Collier's Weekly.....	2		

Those often found within the homes, but not subscribed for, are:

Name of Magazine	Number	Per cent of Class
True Story.....	15	37½
Ladies' Home Journal.....	4	10
Collier's Weekly.....	3	7½
Liberty.....	2	5
None found in 17 homes		

The *True Story* magazine proved to be not only the most prevalent within the homes but the favorite as well with the children. The consensus of the children's tastes in magazine reading, dependent upon those actually found at home, seems to be that any yarn will do provided it has a strong love or some adventure element.

The data which follows was obtained by asking the children to write the names of the magazines for which they would like subscriptions as gifts from friends or parents.

Name of Magazine	Per		Name of Magazine	Per	
	No.	cent		No.	cent
Junior Red Cross Magazine	13	32½	Air Stories.....	1	2½
True Story.....	8	20	American Girl.....	1	2½
Saturday Evening Post....	6	15	Boy Scout Magazine.....	1	2½
(2 for pictures only)			Good Housekeeping.....	1	2½
Motion Picture.....	4	10	Judge.....	1	2½
Photoplay.....	3	7½	Literary Digest.....	1	2½
Ladies' Home Journal....	2	5	Own Your Own Home....	1	2½
Love Story.....	2	5	Romance.....	1	2½
National Geographic.....	2	5	Screen.....	1	2½
Wings.....	2	5	None desired.....	4	10

Number reporting..... 40

It is significant that although many of the sensational magazines are desired there is a decided tendency to want a better type. The *Junior Red Cross* magazine and the *National Geographic*, two of the magazines listed among the preferences, have been seen or used in class during the term. This fact, however, seems to have influenced their choice but slightly.

Newspapers

The newspapers read by the members of this group give insight into the types of newspapers popular in the families of tradesmen and artisans. The children naturally read those which older members of the family have introduced into the home. The following table arranged in order of the number read was enlightening.

Newspaper	No. Read Daily and Sunday	Sunday Edition Only	Per cent
Daily News.....	39		97½
Daily Mirror.....	25		62½
Evening Journal.....	19		47½
Brooklyn Times.....	19		47½
New York World.....	17	2	42½
Graphic.....	14		35
Standard Union.....	10		25
New York American.....	8	7	20
Brooklyn Daily Eagle.....	5		12½
New York Times.....	5		12½
Herald Tribune.....	4	2	10
The Sun.....	2		5
*Home Talk.....	2		5
*Item.....	1		2½

*Local weekly paper.

This shows that on the average each child reads 4½ different daily papers; and that the tabloids giving prominence to sensational news are most in demand among the families of these forty children.

As for the foreign newspapers available in the home there were 26 as follows:

1—Lithuanian	5—Italian
1—Ukrainian	5—Jewish
2—From England	9—Polish
3—From Newfoundland	—
	26 Total

Practically all the children agreed that of the newspapers found in their homes, the *Daily News* was the favorite with the *Mirror* second, and favorite features were the comic sheets. Fourteen read only the comics while the rest combined these with one or two other interests.

The favorite newspaper features have been arranged according to popularity in the following table:

Article	No. Reading	Per Cent
Comic Sheets.....	39	97½
Bright Sayings.....	7	17½
Embarrassing Moments.....	5	12½
Evening Stories.....	3	7½
News Events (headlines only).....	3	7½
Jokes.....	2	5

To the *Current Events*, a public-school newspaper, only four subscribed. This low subscription rate was partly due to lack of interest and partly to an increase in the price of the paper.

In general, then, the newspaper reading was not such as might be considered educationally advantageous. The utter lack of discrimination in children shortly to be graduated from the elementary school indicates a large field of work in the matter of newspapers as in the matter of magazines, both of which, I believe, are sadly neglected.

INFLUENCES DETERMINING READING PRACTICES

The next series of studies made deals with the influences which might be incentives or deterrents to reading. Family influences would probably be great. Therefore, I tried

first to discover how many of the parents were fond of reading and obtained the following results:

22 children reported	Both parents fond of reading
2 children reported	Both parents fond of reading (but newspapers only)
1 child reported	Both parents fond of reading (Italian only)
5 children reported	Neither parent fond of reading
10 children reported	One parent only fond of reading (6 mothers, 4 fathers)

—
40

Then, to glimpse the bibliographical background of the children, each child was asked to bring in the list of books which were actually owned by the family. Numerically the results were as follows:

No. of Children Reporting	No. of Books in Home Library	No. of Children Reporting	No. of Books in Home Library	No. of Children Reporting	No. of Books in Home Library
1	54	2	29	1	18
1	53	1	27	3	15
1	47	1	26	1	14
1	43	2	25	2	13
1	41	1	24	3	11
1	40	1	23	2	10
1	33	2	22	1	9
1	32	1	21	1	7
1	31	1	19	1	6

—
Total 36 844

The average number of books owned per family is 21.1. Of the 844 books reported there were only 82 nonfiction, including poetry, technical books, dictionaries, histories, geographies, etc., or 9.9 per cent. There were 15, or 1.8 per cent, foreign books; 9 Lithuanian, 6 Polish, leaving 88.2 per cent English fiction. Only 16 or 44.4 per cent of the 36 children reporting had any nonfiction at all.

Twenty girls reported home libraries containing no nonfiction. It is interesting to note that only 2 children reported the Bible as among their books. It is a detail of interest that the only book of any English trend reported by a Lithuanian girl whose family library consists of 10 books is an English and Lithuanian Dictionary.

A survey of the lists of books found in the home libraries of this group showed that with the exception of series, such as Burt Standish's *Dick Merriwell*, and his *Frank Merriwell*; Appleton's *Don Sturdy* and *Tom Swift*; Stella Francis's Camp Fire Girl series; Alger's books; Crane's Automobile Girls series, etc., the duplications are almost negligible. Popular motion pictures seem to have determined the choice of many of the books. A few are textbooks used in the schools. Most of the books are such as might appeal to the average child of junior-high-school age. There is the appeal of narrative, but probably little that would arouse a love for the beauties of our language.

Not only is there little literary inspiration afforded by the children's home libraries, but, furthermore, the parents as a group are, apparently, not interested in good reading in any general way. This assertion is borne out by inquiry as to the conversational stimulus received at home. The data was obtained by asking each child, "What do you talk about at supper or dinner?"

The resultant information could be accurate only in part, for a child's report on family table talk naturally leaves room for omissions. It is noteworthy to realize, however, that in but 6 of nearly 40 families are books discussed at all. In only 19 families are current events discussed, and many of these of the sensational kind, as murders and other crimes, divorces, and marriages. Theaters, comprising mostly motion-picture theaters and their presentations, are discussed in 5 families, while business is the dominant source for conversation in 11 families. Twenty-six children reported that personal affairs are generally discussed. Very little desire for reading is obviously aroused by the type of conversations prevailing in these homes.

I was also eager to discover how the reading was con-

trolled, if at all, and found that in their choice of books and periodicals,

- 2 were advised by their older sisters
- 4 were advised by mothers
- 2 were sometimes advised by mothers
- 1 was advised by father
- 7 were advised by both parents
- 19 had none to advise them
- 1 reported "Mother and Sister decide if I should like a book"
- 1 reported "Mother gives list of excellent, clean books to read. *Sometimes* I decide what I read."
- 2 did not report

The next field of interest was the effect of social influences apart from those of the homes on the children's reading. First might be mentioned the class library, which consisted in this case of 36 books. These were given out every week in such a manner that every child had a change of book at least every two weeks. The books were indiscriminately distributed unless a request for a definite book had been received before the distribution began. The teachers' purpose in assigning books whether desired or not was to encourage, if possible, all children to read something. Previous experience had proved that when absolutely free choice with no automatic and compulsory distribution was permitted, some never bothered to take any books. However, even such assigning was not always successful. One girl, it was found, accepted the book given her, lent it to some one else who wanted it, and returned it on the day due. This was discovered towards the end of the term when a borrower failed to return the book on time. The girl admitted to having "passed on" books regularly and did admit too that she enjoyed reading one of the books; namely, *Daddy-Long-Legs* by Jean Webster. This same girl also enjoyed being read to, as she demonstrated during

the reading of *Rebecca of Sunnybrook Farm* by Wiggin, which was read aloud to the class.

The books in the class library most often requested were

Alcott—*Little Women*
 Seaman—*The Girl Next Door*
 Stowe—*Uncle Tom's Cabin*
 Twain—*The Prince and the Pauper*
 Webster—*Daddy-Long-Legs*
 Wiggin—*Rebecca of Sunnybrook Farm*
 Polly Oliver's Problem

The public libraries, too, are a social influence which determine in part the reading practices of these children. It was found that 22 of the 40 children were members of a public library. The distances of their homes from the libraries seemed to have no effect on membership.

Outside clubs affording reading facilities that might determine reading practices received the following consideration:

- 32 belonged to no clubs
- 4 belonged to church or Sunday-School libraries
- 1 belonged to a Scout Troop library
- 1 belonged to Y.W.C.A. library
- 2 belonged to a club (name not mentioned) which gives credit for original stories and poems written by children and which gives books as prizes

Apparently, since only 22 belonged to the public libraries and only 8 availed themselves of reading facilities in the way of other social units, it seems indisputable that the many opportunities for reading are not being taken advantage of by this representative group of 7B girls.

Could physical influences be deterring some from reading? The condition of eyesight in 35 was normal; only 5 suffered from eyestrain, possibly due to excessive reading. The general health was fair. One suffered from malaria, 2 were anaemic, and one a cardiac case. The lighting used in the homes evidently had no influence as

only 3 used gas for lighting purposes and 36 electricity. One did not report.

The economic backgrounds of the children might play their share in determining reading practices. It was found from submitted data that the average number of children per average family of 6 members is 4. There are 76 regular wage earners and 180 dependents, making the average number of dependents for whom each wage earner is responsible 2.37. In most families the mothers remained at home. As the average families are large, it would seem probable that many children had work to do in the homes after school hours, thus preventing them from reading to any great extent.

Finally, by way of conclusion, an attempt was made to determine the number of those expressing a fondness for reading, and the reasons for the dislike of others for reading. The results were as follows:

- 29 children were actually fond of reading
- 2 insisted on inserting a *very*—
- 1 Sometimes
- 8 Not at all fond of it

The 8 who admitted to not liking reading gave the following reasons for not wanting to read:

- 2 said "I'm restless"
- 1 said "I do not like to read because I dream about it"
- 1 said "I do not like to read because it affects my eyes; print too small; gives me a headache"
- 1 said "Gives me a headache"
- 1 said "Have no time"
- 1 said "I am not interested"
- 1 said "It's a waste of time"

One dislike, then, is due to a disagreeable mental reaction, four to a physical reaction, one to economic conditions, and the two others do not explain.

Has the amount or kind of the children's reading had any obvious influence on their scholarship? I judge it has but

very little. Of the four who reported as never reading, one received the rating of A, one B+, one B, and one failed. The only other girl with a failing class mark reported reading one book a week. Of those who had fairly large home libraries, the majority were in the upper half of the class. Yet one who had what I should consider the best list of books and the best conversational stimulus and home influence did only fair work in the formal school subjects. I must admit, however, that at times she evinced unusual intelligence concerning important current happenings.

Nationality seemed to have no effect on individual scholarship. The two who failed were Italians. On the other hand, two others, also Italians, were at the head of the class. The Poles were similar in classification; a few very low, two very high, the rest medium. One of the low-grade pupils was an American girl with several generations of United States citizenship back of her and very intelligent parents. The majority, irrespective of national background, were normal with regard to school studies.

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS AND REMARKS

1. School, with its present methods of teaching reading and literature, is not inculcating an interest in literature.
2. The "movies" have influenced reading and encouraged a desire for "thrillers" and excessive action.
3. The ignorance of our literature on the part of foreign parents is a deterrent in developing a love for reading.
4. Facilities for reading, at least within the schoolhouse, libraries, and social centers, are not lacking. In fact they invite, yet are often disregarded by the adolescent girl.
5. The proportion of newspaper reading greatly exceeds both that of magazines and that of books. Direction in this type of reading is, therefore, imperative, and thus is disclosed a vast and almost untouched field for the study of newspapers and magazines in the elementary schools, a field

which should aim to develop a sense of discrimination, however slight.

6. As tabulations indicate, the magazines read by the children because of their availability within the home are not the magazines the children would have preferred had a free choice been possible. Suitable and desired current magazines might be added most advantageously to the school or class library. The average public library, frequented incidentally by less than fifty per cent of these pupils, possesses but rarely a magazine rack in the children's department. The school library, therefore, has an opportunity here.

7. School libraries, with an enforced circulation, though not fully utilized by the children, afford a most effective means of presenting good reading matter to the children, as the repeated listing of school library books as favorite books indicates. School libraries, therefore, should be increasingly enriched.

FOR BETTER HEALTH EDUCATION IN OUR SCHOOLS

IAGO GALDSTON

An extensive variety of experiences that came upon us during and after the war has led us to a sharply focused appreciation of the existing great need for health education. Even as the mental testing of more than a million soldiers gave us a startling picture of their average mental level, so, too, their physical examination revealed a shockingly low level of physical being. A heretofore inconceivably large per cent was found to be "defective," suffering from incapacitating, though largely preventable, disease effects. Our awakening was rude but evidently effective, for health education has been much "in the air" ever since, and many splendid minds have concentrated on the problem of how and what to teach on "the right idea of how to live." Naturally, the more thorough the study, the more complicated the problem revealed itself to be and the more improbable became its ready and easy solution. It is evident, now, that the factors involved in the problem of health education are numerous, and that many of them require pioneer study. A variety of answers of comparable promise present themselves to a number of the problems and nothing short of applying them to daily practice will serve to signal the superior ones. During the last ten years our experiences have singled out certain aspects of the health-education problem as of first importance, and among these is school health education.

The accumulated experience of the health-education movement in the United States and elsewhere has served to focus attention on the importance of the school period in the establishment of good health habits.

It is evident that this period must render the best returns for the efforts invested in teaching the child the rules of

proper living, and that next to the home the school is the logical place for health education. Experience and observation have, therefore, led to the belief that health education in the school is essential to the upbuilding of a healthy adult.

School children may be considered adults in a developing stage. Their mental attitudes towards health and its conservation, their personal hygiene practices, and their everyday health behavior can be more easily affected during the school period than at any other time. Health education in the classroom can be incorporated into and made an integral part of the daily educational routine and can be reënforced through the channels of the three R's and the other items of instruction. The intimate contact between teacher and pupil and the atmosphere of personal regard and favorable guidance constitute a peculiarly favorable influence, more conducive to effective health education than perhaps may be effective under other circumstances or at any other time in the life of the individual. But the incorporation of health considerations in the curriculum has not been appreciably achieved. It constitutes an objective of great difficulty in attainment.

The difficulties to be overcome before the institution of such a program are separable into three rather exacting groups of conditions. There must be available a competent corps of teachers. These teachers must be informed on the essentials of health promotion and conservation. The school curriculum must allow for the incorporation of health education in the routine.

How well today are we able to meet these conditions? Certainly it is evident that there is nowhere available any large body of teachers trained in health education. The essential facts of health education are not gathered into a ready form. The uninitiated, when attempting to gather the important health-education facts, is confronted with a mountain of data varying from the aesthetically desirable

but unimportant, to the vital precept, and the uninitiated is without the necessary background and knowledge required for an intelligent selection. Here and there one may find health-education curricula for training teachers developed and utilized in individual and isolated institutions, but there is nowhere to be found a crystallized health-education program as is available for the teaching of English or of geography.

The content of the program affects and determines the method of presentation, but without a clear definition of what is to go into the school health-education program, the prescribed methods of instruction must remain undefined.

Precisely how to include the health-education program in the curriculum is difficult to determine; whether health education is to be an independent subject to be taught in so many periods each week, like history or arithmetic, or whether it is to be insinuated into the already established daily routine of instruction; what its relationship should be to physical education, home economics, biology, civics, etc. These and many other problems make the third element of school health education as complicated and difficult as either of the first two. But every one of these problems must be solved in a workable if not perfect manner before a meritorious school health-education program can be placed in operation.

Briefly then, school health education is vital to the health of our community; to carry on such a program there must be available (a) teachers who know the facts of health education; (b) teachers who know how to teach these facts; (c) a school curriculum that enables the teachers to impart health education.

Teachers for our public schools are, in the main, trained in institutions known as teacher-training schools. Naturally, then, we must look to these institutions for teachers trained in the facts of health education. This in turn pre-

supposes that the training school is competent to give such training. Once the proper authorities are convinced, as many of them already are, of the importance of health education, it becomes an easy matter to "man" the training-school faculty so that it will competently handle the subject of health education. A number of private schools and universities have in the last ten years built up, from a dead start, thoroughly well-organized and competent schools of health education. The present pressing task is to convince the responsible authorities of the need for health education. However, even this should not prove too difficult a task. Witness the recent change in the title of the New York school system's department of physical education to the department of health education.

Perhaps more complicated than the matter of rendering the training schools competent to teach health education to their teacher-students is the pre-training school education of the pupils. The experience of the writer with pupils taking health education work in the New York Training School for Teachers has convinced him that unless the student has a well-organized preliminary training in the basic sciences the task of training him in health education becomes extremely difficult. The training-school instructor is obliged to spend a great deal of time making up for the deficiency in the pupil's education. This, of course, takes valuable time from the teaching of the more essential elements in health education.

Every student entering teachers training should be required to possess a certain working knowledge of physics, chemistry, and human biology. Preferably, this knowledge should have been secured in a course especially given for prospective teacher-training students.

Such a course in sciences would vary substantially from any available today. In the majority of science courses given to high-school students the major emphasis is placed upon the science per se. Physics is taught so that the stu-

dent might acquire an embracing knowledge of the subject. As much is true of the teaching of chemistry and of biology, which in the main is not given as human biology but is more morphologic or comparative biology. Such science courses are valuable as a preliminary training for future technical studies. To the teacher, however, such courses are less valuable than would be those aiming to impart to the student a mass of principles and facts competent to serve as a background against which could be projected the more specific details of health education. In other words, it would be desirable for high-school pupils expecting to train for teaching to secure an integrated knowledge of physics, chemistry, and biology, not for special competence in these subjects, but rather to understand better the precepts of health education. To the writer's knowledge, no such course is now being given in any of the high schools of the City. On the other hand, he is convinced that it would not be difficult to outline and give such a course.

Apart from the fact that such studies in the basic sciences would prepare the teacher-pupil for a more competent understanding of what is later to come in the health-education courses, this training would impart to the student what is as important as factual matter; namely, a proper attitude. Educators know that neither the possession of a mass of knowledge nor the capacity to impart such knowledge to the student is adequate to render the teacher competent. In health education, effectiveness is achieved only when knowledge translates itself into everyday action, and something more—that something having been designated as attitude—is required both in the personality of the teacher, in the quality of instruction, and in the learning of the child pupil.

It is extremely difficult to define attitude, primarily because it is not a thing in itself but an essence or a quality. To define its mainspring is therefore an exceedingly difficult if not impossible task. But, *understanding* certainly

contributes to the beginning of an effective attitude in health education. Many a teacher may be found mouthing facts in health education in the manner of an actor speaking a learned-by-rote but not understood foreign language. Such teaching must be ineffective. There is an atmosphere about such teaching as if neither teacher nor pupil understood what is was all about, as if it were some ceremonious procedure which had to be gone through simply because some one "above" insisted upon it.

An understanding of "what it is all about" is easier to acquire when the facts dealt with are set against a proper stage. In health education, such a stage setting would be made up of the primary sciences and some elementary knowledge of medical and public-health history. These matters can easily be fitted into the compass of the intellectual horizon of the high-school pupil.

Turning now to the matter of health education in the teacher-training school, the first item to consider is the obligatory and optional, or regular and elective courses. Some teachers will want to specialize in health education. For such teachers there should be made available—probably in the last year of training—a special elective course. For all teachers, however, there should be an obligatory course in the first years of training. The logic of this recommendation lies in that it is essential for every teacher to receive training in health education, and in that health education in the lower primary school grades is not given as a special subject but is integrated with the other subjects, such as arithmetic, English, etc. It is only in the upper primary grades—probably from the sixth grade on—that health education is treated as a separate item of instruction.

The obligatory course in health education, in the experience of the writer, is best given as a full year's course, divided into two separate terms. In the first term the student is trained in the fundamentals of the structure and functions of the body, common diseases, causation, and dis-

case prevention. The second term is devoted to training the teacher in the technique of health education. In the first term's course the attempt is made to give the student an appreciation of the human body which could be more fittingly described as "functional" than as "descriptive"; that is, more emphasis is placed on the "working" of the body than on the structure and naming of parts of the body. In the second term the teacher is trained in the technique of health education, this technique being supplementary to the general technique of pedagogy which the student has acquired in other courses.

Technique in health education, to a large measure, concerns itself with the utilization of materials available from extramural sources. This training is of value for the reason that in every community there are many private and public organizations outside of the school system which are concerned with health conservation and the health education of the school child. These bodies make available much health-education material which the conscientious and competent teacher will want to incorporate into her classroom activities. A knowledge of the source—real and potential—of this type of health-education material and a knowledge of how to utilize this material is an important phase of the training of the teacher-pupil.

THE INDUSTRIAL ARTS AS AN EDUCATIONAL FACTOR IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

ARNOLD LEVITAS

For a long time education concerned itself mainly with general culture. The object of the schools and educators was to develop the minds of the students—to make them fitted for the social life and for that enjoyment of it which comes from a developed appreciation of literature, music, and art.

Education for the professions was the first step in the practical application of learning to the economic phases of life. So successful did this type of education prove to be that it finally led to the consideration of special education for the business man and artisan.

The attitude of the average educator in regard to vocational education was at first hostile. He could not reconcile himself to the idea that education should lend itself to anything of that sort. Gradually, because of economic necessity and because of the forcible and convincing arguments of educators who had given much thought to the matter, many of the objectors were brought to realize the need of this type of education. During the past decade, great strides have been made in the introduction of the practical trades as an educative factor in the public schools of the nation—much of the impetus for this advance having been added by the action of the Federal Government through the Smith-Hughes bill.

For a thorough consideration of the matter of the introduction of the practical arts into the school system, it should be divided into two distinct classes—first, the practical arts as a manual-training device; and, secondly, the teaching of the arts and crafts as a vocation in life.

THE PRACTICAL ARTS AS A MANUAL-TRAINING DEVICE

1. Value of Manual Training

Most educational psychologists today believe that there is great value in manual training for general education. They say that even the boy who is to enter one of the professions should go into the shop and learn the use of tools. He will learn there how to use his hands and will get a direct contact with practical things. Such a boy will have a better understanding and appreciation of the people and affairs he comes in contact with. He will have a greater interest in the manufacturing processes and other phases in commercial life.

But there is a far stronger argument in favor of manual training in the school, and that is the wholesome effect that it will have on the mind of the student and on his studies. We find that manual training has greater opportunities for the practical mental development of the average pupil and evokes a stronger interest in the student than does the everyday academic subject.

The premature, as well as the inexperienced, mind comprehends an abstract principle more readily when it is concretely applied. Therefore, many a mathematical theory is clarified and intensified when put into practice in a manual-training problem.

Professor Judd says: "We are told that shopwork is very helpful in the training of pupils, because each piece of work requires a fidelity to the materials used which is more rigid than is the fidelity required in merely reciting to a class teacher. One may give an ambiguous answer, but no one can drive in an ambiguous nail. This conformity to natural laws is said to be very good for pupils."

Practical art has marked expressional values. The pupil who masters the use of tools, and has made a table or set a type job, has created something, and he has just rea-

son to be proud of it. Besides that, it gives a happy means and practical opportunity of expressing his personality.

The following from *Psychology for Teachers*, by Benson, Lough, Skinner, and West, is to the point: "The present mechanical and industrial age, with its emphasis on mass production and standardized piecework in factories, is not conducive to original creative work. For those who are forced to carry on such labor, avocational interests, or hobbies, are very important. These should appeal to the natural creative urge which is being denied in the regular vocation. Because of the growing diversity in human activities, there is an increasing opportunity for individual initiative and inventive ability in many vocations. All vocations need to be reinterpreted in terms of their appeals as expressive activities.

2. Theory and Practice

If we may consider general academic education as theoretical, and manual training as practical, we have a fine and necessary combination in the two. Theory without practice is just as bad as practice without theory. Both are essential for good results; and it is being realized today that when the development of one goes on without the development of the other, it is a one-sided, incomplete affair.

There are people who have developed skill in the practical arts without developing the corresponding theoretical knowledge; and, on the other hand, there are many theorists who can do no practical work. One of the great tasks of modern educators is to apply the theory to such an extent as to improve the possibilities for skill; and this could be done, at the very outset, in the elementary schools.

The study and practice of the manual arts by the students of academic subjects will help them definitely in their studies of arithmetic, history, English, and other subjects, through a practical development of the mind, through the practice of application of theory, and through the satisfac-

tion of accomplishment. Theory is a verbal reaction, while practice is made up of motor reactions; and our constant object is to convert theory into practice at the psychological moment, because that transformation will reduce our further efforts and allow us to continue in our quest for progress and advancement.

Industry has not always allied itself with science. It is only in recent years that industry has recognized the value of scientific aid. On the other hand, science has often overstepped the limits of practical procedure. But both sides have felt the need for each other, and are recognizing more and more keenly their dependence on each other. The theorist has often been regarded as a dreamer and idealist, incapable of real results, while the practical worker has been called a "plodder." It is true that alone neither is capable of great achievement; but brought together, controlled by one mind, they are invincible.

3. Coördinating Thinking and Practice

The most important evolution in educational progress would be the correlating of thinking and practical efforts. A theory will sometimes seem impractical and unsound, and not to be relied on as a guide to life. Therefore, some skeptical people will condemn theories as fantastic and unreliable. But thinking people generally have reached a different conclusion. They recognize that human experience is different from animal experience. Human experience is based on analyses, intellectual considerations, and adjustments. The man will think carefully before engaging in any task—thereby eliminating useless effort; whereas the animal continues his trial-and-error method until he hits on the right procedure. This shows how valuable work could be if coupled with theory and how useless effort could be avoided through analysis.

When one draws the conclusion that it is desirable to develop a relation between practice and theory, and when

one bears in mind that there is a fundamental difference between theoretical processes and practical application—he realizes that it is an important thing in education to develop the method of translating theory into practice and practice into theory.

Many educators have tried the experiment of teaching theory and of relying on later life to supply the opportunities for application, but the results have not been satisfactory. That cannot be done. Both must be taught together; and that procedure should be started as early as possible in the school life of the child.

It is conceded that practices formed in youth—particularly during preadolescence and adolescence—are not only more readily acquired, but become most deeply ingrained.

4. Utilizing the Value of the Play Spirit

A great deal of stress has been laid on the importance of play in the school, and the value of it is particularly well recognized in the kindergarten. If it is useful there, some of its beneficial forms may be made useful to other parts of the school system.

The value of play lies mainly in that it is a free activity and is something that brings out a pleasurable response. We often find it hard to decide as to the difference between work and play—the final decision depending upon whether it is free and pleasurable or against one's inclinations. The building of a house, the construction of a radio set, the solving of a crossword puzzle, or even the baseball game, may be either play or work—according to the interest and attitude of the particular individual.

Now, we find that academic studies are often classed as work because of the attitude of the student at the time; while manual training is more often sought, relished, and regarded with the feelings that accompany play because it is a free activity and calls for efforts which are not difficult to produce. It follows that a combination of the two—academic studies and manual training—would serve two

useful purposes, making it easier to teach the youth and relieving much of what is termed as drudgery on the part of the pupils. Manual training offers a good opportunity of bringing into the school system something of that play spirit which is so widely acclaimed and considered of such great importance as an aid in teaching and in the work in the classroom.

THE TEACHING OF TRADES IN THE SCHOOL

With regard to the second of our problems—that of teaching the practical arts as a vocation. It has been shown, time and again, that the great majority of boys and girls need their education as a preparation for life in commerce and in industry, and that only a small percentage of those entering public school attain to college grade. This shows that we must provide that type of education which will fit the needs of a great many people who are now, more or less, neglected.

Many surveys made within recent years point to the inadequacy of our present educational system. Some of these show that we are falling far short of training and educating our youth as it should be trained. All evidences point to the great need of vocational secondary education in our school system.

Professor Inglis, in his book, *Principles of Secondary Education*, mentions a number of surveys and speaks of their findings which tend to show that the lure of out-of-school life is very great. Many boys and girls feel that they are not getting the training that they need. They have little faith that a secondary-school course, as now constituted, will benefit them much in their expected careers—as is evidenced by the table on page 429.

In one of the surveys, the following question was asked of a group of children in the high school: "Do you regard

a high-school course as necessary for the realization of your plans for the future?" The answers were as follows:

Answers	Number Answering			
	1st Year	2d Year	3d Year	4th Year
Yes.....	26	18	12	11
No.....	49	21	8	4
Undecided.....	41	22	10	3

About one and a half million children in the United States are now receiving some form of secondary education. A greater number of pupils are now getting the benefit of this education in this country than in any other; and it has become necessary to extend the curricula to meet the increased needs. But many adjustments are necessary to meet the constantly changing and developing conditions.

To illustrate the necessity for new adjustments in the matter of secondary education, it might be well to show how faulty the present system of secondary education is as regards those who are not to follow a college course. One of the definite weaknesses is shown by the amount of retardation in the school system.

Inasmuch as retardation at any point in the school system affects the work of all successive grades, the data presented in the following table for schools in general is important. The table on page 430 is from one of the surveys made within recent years.

Retardation increases the expense of maintenance, and represents a large economic loss to the country. Finally, it fosters withdrawal from school. This leads to the conclusion that the secondary school, as at present constituted, is ill adapted for certain types of pupils—particularly for those who are not interested in, or fitted for, cultural or professional education.

MEDIAN PERCENTAGES OF THE WHOLE NUMBER OF BOYS AND GIRLS WHO WERE
OF NORMAL AGE, OVERAGE, AND UNDERAGE

(Survey Made in 133 Cities of 25,000 People or Over)	Boys	Girls
Of Normal Age.....	56	60
1 Year Overage.....	20	18
2 Years Overage.....	10	9
3 Years Overage.....	5	3
4 Years Overage.....	2	1
Total Overage.....	38	32
Total Underage.....	4	4

Probably the strongest argument in favor of another kind of education—namely, vocational education—for a large number of students, may be found in the withdrawal of the many pupils from every grade of the present-day secondary schools. This is well illustrated by the following table prepared by Professor Thorndike from a survey made within the past ten years.

PERCENTAGES IN THE DIFFERENT GRADES OF THOSE BEGINNING THE FIRST
GRADE OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Elementary School	Per Cent Remaining	Per Cent Eliminated
1st Grade.....	100	0
2d Grade.....	100	0
3d Grade.....	100	0
4th Grade.....	90	10
5th Grade.....	81	19
6th Grade.....	68	32
7th Grade.....	54	46
8th Grade.....	40	60
High School		
1st Year.....	27	73
2d Year.....	17	83
3d Year.....	12	88
4th Year.....	8	92

It is now known that one half to two thirds of those entering high school reach second year; that one third to one half of the remaining reach third year; and that one fourth of the rest reach fourth year. Other findings show that one ninth of those remaining in the last year of high school go to college. The older the pupil becomes, the stronger the force to pull him away. This is due to certain economic and social forces, and point strongly to the need of providing a type of education which will help the student in his future business or industrial life.

Professor Inglis says: "It is probable that the large proportion of pupils preparing for admission to higher education in many high schools is indicative of the fact that the function of secondary education is receiving too great attention and that insufficient attention is being paid to groups of pupils who are destined to leave school early or who are to end their formal education with the close of the secondary-school course."

In 1914, in this country, 497,110 pupils entered high school, of which 165,703 dropped out the first year; about 100,000 dropped out the second year; and about 50,000 dropped out the third year. Since then statistics show that percentages of withdrawal have constantly increased, year by year.

From the above data we gather that three groups of pupils need special attention, and it points quite clearly to the fact that these have to be taken care of through some other methods and a different type of education than is provided for the group interested in cultural or professional careers. Since each of the three groups is to enter business or trade, it is plain to see that we must provide for them a type of vocational education that will hold their interest and prepare them for their life's work.

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

In order that this section of THE JOURNAL may be of the greatest possible service, its readers are urged to send at once to the editor of this department titles—and where possible descriptions—of current research projects now in process in educational sociology, and also those projects in kindred fields of interest to educational sociology. Correspondence upon proposed projects and methods will be welcomed.

NATIONAL PUBLIC RECOGNITION OF RESEARCH

President Hoover has appointed a research council on social trends which is to make a thorough investigation of changes in our social life during the past few decades. The study will include health, maladjustments, leisure time and recreation, family life, housing, education, and many other topics of interest to the sociologist.

The survey which will be completed in two or three years will be made by persons trained in research techniques and its findings will be available as a basis for legislation and social control.

The director of the study is Wesley C. Mitchell, professor of economics, Columbia University. The other members of the council are Charles E. Merriam, professor of political science, University of Chicago, and former president of the Social Science Research council; William F. Ogburn, professor of sociology, University of Chicago; Howard W. Odum, professor of sociology, University of North Carolina, and president of the American Sociological Society; and Shelby M. Harrison, vice general director, Russell Sage Foundation. The study, which will be financed by the Rockefeller foundation, may draw upon the large resources of that foundation to the extent of its needs.

RURAL ORGANIZATION AND THE FARM FAMILY¹

A recent study dealing with the organization behavior of farm families in selected districts of Wisconsin attempted

¹ Statement furnished through the courtesy of Professor E. L. Kirkpatrick, Department of Agricultural Economics, University of Wisconsin.

to examine the influence of certain conditioning factors and to throw light on the question of what may be expected of the farm family with respect to participation in organization activities. The 282 families of the study included 924 persons of organization age, 10 years or over. The organizations included farmers' clubs, women's clubs, church societies, lodges, marketing associations, and the like.

By personal interview a schedule was obtained for each family in the districts studied. Additional schedules were filled for all persons 10 years of age or over. Selected districts and families were revisited for case stories pertaining to the organization situation.

Actual participation in organization activities consisted of five forms or elements: affiliation, in terms of regular contacts; attendance, in terms of number of meetings per year; contributions in the form of money, food, and appearance on programs; committee work, serving on a committee for one or more meetings; and leadership, the holding of an office during the year. The averages for these elements, per person per year, were:

	<i>Number</i>
Affiliation or membership9
Meetings attended	6.0
Contributions made	1.1
Committee service rendered3
Offices held1

Each of these averages was used in the development of a family participation index for rural organizations. First they were multiplied by 100 for convenience. Next, the allotted weights were adjusted to round numbers, with consideration of the fact that a person is on a committee for one meeting, while he is usually an officer for a year. This gave a scale of weights, with a total of 1000 points for the person having average participation.

By means of this scale each family was rated as follows:

Family A	Total Points	Affiliations	Attendance	Contributions	Committees	Leadership
		1 affiliation-100	1 meeting 100	1 contribution 100	1 committee-25	1 office 75
Total Points for family.....	22800	1800	17900	2700	25	375
Mr. A.....	4400	400	3300	700
Mrs. A.....	9525	700	7300	1300	225
Eldon.....	2800	200	2400	200
Anna.....	2000	200	1500	200	25	75
Robert.....	1300	100	1200
Frances.....	2775	200	2200	300	75

The total points for the family (22800) divided by the number of persons in the family (6) gives a participation index of 3800 points for this family.

The indexes obtained by the above scheme of rating for the 201 families with organization affiliations ranged from 40 points per family to 9675 points per family. The average of the indexes per family for these 201 families was 1159 points. It was 826 points for all the families, including the 81 families with no organization affiliation or support and therefore zero index. The averages of the participation indexes per family for the different districts were: Brown, 1886 points; Rock Bridge, 1461 points; Orchard, 1282 points; Donaldson, 1271 points; Upton Mine, 1160 points; Stone Vale, 775 points; Fowler's Ville, 700 points; Crawford, 400 points; Friendship, 324 points; Little Dell, 320 points; Boone, 167 points; and North Ferry, 162 points.

According to the statistical method of analysis, educational, recreational, and cultural facilities and activities are more closely associated with organization behavior than are composition of the family, family living facilities, and farm-business resources. Educational, recreational, and cultural facilities and activities included periodicals taken,

books owned and borrowed, reading, and radio auditing. Family living facilities included central heating, lighting, and running-water systems, automobile, and telephone. Farm-business resources included income, acres operated and acres cropped, and number of horses, trucks, or tractors used per farm.

The forty or more factors which were analyzed statistically as conditioners of organization behavior seemed to be responsible for not more than a fourth of the total influence of all factors. Other factors, less tangible but equally important, were studied by the case method of analysis. These centered in the historical, ecological, and cultural backgrounds of the districts or localities and of the families themselves.

QUESTIONNAIRE LOAN LIBRARY

The Committee on the Family of the Social Science Research Council is endeavoring to collect copies of questionnaires, schedules, and other blanks used by investigators studying the family. It is proposed to establish this material as a loan collection in the office of the Social Science Research Council in New York City, so that responsible institutions and investigators may borrow the collection for a limited period when organizing research plans.

The coöperation of all investigators in the field of the family is earnestly requested, since a fairly complete collection is desired, and you are asked to send immediately *three complete sets* of all such forms appropriately marked to show the institution and the name of the investigator to the Social Science Research Council, 230 Park Avenue, New York City.

CO-OPERATION IN RESEARCH

The following excerpt from the January 1930 issue of *The American Journal of Sociology* seems worthy of copying for the students of educational sociology.

Professor Stuart A. Rice requests publication of the following note on the need for a policy respecting student research in association with

social agencies: The ethical responsibilities subsisting among the various persons involved in connection with the performance and publication of research work have not been clearly formulated. Professor Truman L. Kelley has recently published the results of a questionnaire relating to the responsibility of authors for giving credit to those who have rendered assistance of various kinds in the preparation of books and articles. (*Scientific Method*, University of Ohio Press, 1929.)

A somewhat related question involves the mutual responsibilities of educational departments, students, and noneducational agencies. There are reasons to fear that in their desire to be of service to the community and to particular social agencies departments of instruction in universities and colleges may lose sight of the educational responsibility to their students. The department of sociology of the University of Pennsylvania has recently expressed its policy in this respect. It has been suggested that this statement be presented to the readers of *The American Journal of Sociology* as a possible basis of some general discussion leading to a crystallization of opinion concerning the mutual responsibilities involved.

The formulation referred to follows:

The department of sociology is frequently consulted regarding investigations originated by social agencies. It is not infrequently asked to assign students to research projects involving the records of such agencies. Since the department desires in such cases to be of all possible assistance consistent with its educational responsibilities, the following statement of policy has been prepared for its guidance and that of agencies concerned.

1. Research studies undertaken by graduate and undergraduate university students in connection with social agencies must have as their prime consideration the educational benefits to be received by the student. Any other major consideration would be in conflict with the chief end of university instruction.

2. It follows that the tasks assigned to students should be such as will employ their reasoning and analytic powers. Routine work which might be performed by clerical assistants were funds for their employment available, is not fairly to be regarded as a student research function. A minimum amount of such routine work may be viewed as desirable for practice in technique, or as essential for a better understanding by the student of the nature of the data and the conclusions drawn therefrom.

3. Since a secondary objective of the department of sociology is to extend scientific knowledge concerning society, projects to which students are assigned should preferably have an interest sufficiently general to promote this end. Conversely, investigations the value of which are limited to a particular organization do not offer a preferred field for student research.

COMMISSION ON DIRECTION OF THE INVESTIGATION OF HISTORY AND OTHER SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE SCHOOLS¹

This commission, sponsored by the American Historical Association, at a meeting on November 7-8, in New York City, discussed and approved the proposed testing program under the direction of Truman L. Kelley. The proposed plan had previously been considered by the Advisory Committee on Tests.

The members of the commission are: Frank W. Ballou, superintendent of schools, Washington, D. C.; Charles A. Beard, New Milford, Connecticut; Isaiah Bowman, American Geographical Society; Ada L. Comstock, Radcliffe College; George S. Counts, Teachers College, Columbia University; Guy Stanton Ford, University of Minnesota; Evarts B. Greene, Columbia University; Ernest Horn, University of Iowa; Henry Johnson, Teachers College, Columbia University; W. E. Lingelbach, University of Pennsylvania; Leon C. Marshall, Johns Hopkins University; Charles E. Merriam, University of Chicago; Jesse H. Newlon, Director, Lincoln School, New York City; Jesse F. Steiner, Tulane University; A. C. Krey, *Chairman*, University of Minnesota.

The personnel of the different advisory committees thus far appointed and at work includes: *Advisory Committee on Objectives*: Charles A. Beard; Boyd H. Bode, Ohio State University; Guy Stanton Ford; Charles E. Merriam; Harold Rugg, Teachers College, Columbia University; A. C. Krey. *Advisory Committee on Tests*: Frank W. Ballou; Isaiah Bowman; Howard C. Hill, University of Chicago; Ernest Horn; Ben Wood, Columbia University; A. C. Krey, *Chairman*. *Advisory Committee on Public Relations*: Frank W. Ballou; Ada L. Comstock; John A. Fairlie, University of Illinois; A. C. Krey; Robert S. Lynd, Social Science Research Council, New York City; Jesse H. Newlon, *Chairman*.

School administrators, teachers of the social studies, and other interested groups have been generous in assistance given to the staff of the investigation. Communications from individuals who are interested in current activities of the investigation should be sent to 316 Library, University of Minnesota, or 610 Fayerweather Hall, Columbia University, New York City.

¹ *American Journal of Sociology*, January, 1930.

BOOK REVIEWS

Some New Techniques for Studying Social Behavior, by DOROTHY SWAINE THOMAS. New York: Bureau of Publications of Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929, 213 pages.

Dr. Thomas who is director of research at the Child Development Institute at Teachers College and her associates have presented in this volume the results of their recent research in the controlling of observation of social behavior. Dr. Thomas sets the problem in the following words:

The available data in regard to social behavior consists largely of descriptive accounts—case histories and diary records. These are often illuminating social-behavior documents, but they present certain difficulties as material for scientific analysis. The data obtained in such records are, at their best, objective in that they deal with certain verifiable facts, but they are selective, inconsistent, and usually incomparable with other records. . . . Even at their objective best, the selection and emphasis are more or less dependent on the recorder. The control of this sort of error in our social data is one of the first problems claiming our attention. In other words, our data must be independent of our observers within a small and predictable range of error.

The volume goes on to describe a group of ingeniously conceived experiments in which independence of the observer has been more or less successfully achieved. Dr. Thomas's work reflects the present trend in sociology towards controlled experiment and statistical analysis, rather than the comparison of case materials, as a means of testing hypotheses, and establishing generalizations. The book should be carefully perused by every one engaged in social research, or in the training of research workers.

HARVEY W. ZORBAUGH

The Sources of a Science of Education, by JOHN DEWEY. New York: Horace Liveright, 1929, 77 pages.

This little volume is the first in the series of the Kappa Delta Pi lectures. Kappa Delta Pi is "an international honor society in education." Among the sources of a science of education Dr. Dewey finds the following: statistics, biology, physiology, psychology, psychiatry, history of education, and philosophy of education, but "it may be doubted whether with reference to some aspect or other of education there is any organized body of knowledge that may not need to be drawn upon to become a source of educational science" (page 49).

Among the characteristic views of Dr. Dewey appearing in this volume

are the following: Education is in a condition of transition from an empirical to a scientific status; it can and should use the scientific method, leading to both understanding and control of educational facts; education is an art that is becoming increasingly scientific; the problems of mature science originate in experience but can be solved only by abstracting them from experience, thus leading to pure science; the findings of scientific research should not be converted into an immediate rule of educational art; borrowing the techniques of experiment and measurement found in the physical sciences is not enough for educational science; it is important that scientific attitudes be developed; educational practice is both the source of the problems of education as a science and the test of the value of the proposed solutions. "A homogeneous grouping [based on measurements alone] without intervening inquiries approximates dangerously to transforming a theoretical finding in a rule of action" (page 37). The scientific sources of education are relatively backward. Education as a science cannot be developed if research persons are too close to the practical problems or if the university professor is too far away from them. "What a philosophy of education can contribute is range, freedom, and constructive or creative invention" (page 57). Psychology and sociology need to be kept together. The S-R type of psychology is too isolated from biology. Two valuable practical suggestions are made; viz., successful teachers should be studied to determine the methods they use intuitively, and classroom teachers should make their contributions to education as a science. Dr. Dewey's main point in his whole discussion is that scientific results become a part of educational science only as they become operative "in the attitudes and habits of observation, judgment, and planning of those engaged in the educative act" (page 32).

Two points of dubiety are: "Ends are only means brought to full interaction and integration" (page 59), and "the philosophy of education neither originates nor settles ends" (page 56). Since means are never adequate to ends and since ends combined with the data determine the means, it is doubtful whether we can identify ends with fully integrated means. Furthermore, since philosophy estimates consequences in the light of a general scheme of values, such estimation being partly determinative of procedure, it is difficult to deny that philosophy settles ends. These views of Dr. Dewey are one with the general and questionable notion of his, elsewhere expressed, that education has no goal save more education. Of course, if there are no ends, philosophy cannot determine them and we have only means. But that "if" involves one of the big questions in philosophy.

HERMAN H. HORNE

Hygiene of Instruction, by AVERILL. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1928, 386 pages.

This is one of the Riverside Series of textbooks in education under the editorship of Dr. Cubberley. The book covers a large number of

interrelated subjects and in most respects discusses them very well. While there is nothing particularly new in the book, it is a splendid compilation of some of the best material that has been written in recent years along the line of the hygiene of instruction and mental hygiene. The chapter on the physical basis of mental health is exceptionally valuable. The book should be of value to those who have had some previous work in psychology and especially to those who have had some experience. It should prove valuable as a text in a second course in educational psychology and would make a very profitable book for experienced teachers to read.

One criticism might be made of the book—that it tries to cover too many subjects in too short a space. There are some splendid suggestive exercises at the close of each chapter. The bibliography is rather limited. On the whole, for the general reader, it is probably one of the best books on this subject that has been published in recent years.

CHARLES E. BENSON

Administration of Pupil Personnel, by ARCH O. HECK.
Boston: Ginn and Company, 1929, 479 pages.

The almost universal acceptance of the doctrine of individual differences and the widespread reorganization of education to serve more effectively varying individual needs make essential more refined techniques of child-accounting which take account of qualitative as well as quantitative differences. Dr. Heck's study is a valuable addition to the literature on school administration because of his emphasis upon this necessity for adequate pupil records in translating into practice a modern philosophy of education. By far the most significant chapters in the book are those dealing with the purpose of pupil-personnel records, the present status and defects of such records and the criteria and principles which should be employed in devising effective records, chapters which represent for the most part a more popular treatment of the author's monograph, *A Study of Child-Accounting Records*. The reviewer's chief quarrel with the book lies in the use of the title, *Administration of Pupil Personnel*, to describe a volume confined almost entirely to the field of child-accounting. Such a title fits more adequately the use of pupil data in individual adjustment—problems touched on only superficially in the last few chapters, which are by far the weakest in the book. The middle half of the book, however, entitles it to an important place on the school administrator's shelf alongside Moehlman, *Child Accounting*, McAllister and Otis, *Child Accounting Practice*, and National Education Association, Research Bulletin, Vol. 5, No. 5, 1928, School Records and Reports.

DON H. TAYLOR

Study and Personality: A Textbook in Educational Guidance, by RICHARD L. SANDWICK. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1929, 228 pages.

Study and Personality is one of the best books on educational guidance that has been published in recent months. It is based upon sound principles of psychology and written in a style that will appeal to young high-school students. It is the author's contention that young students need to be taught how to study just as they are taught football, algebra, and Latin. Psychologists and educators in general share in this belief. The author further holds that a text such as this should be placed in the hands of students, a place given it on the program, and teachers assigned to the work, since there is considerable evidence that a school which devotes a fifth of its time to instruction and training in the psychology of study will cover more ground in the regular subjects than pupils will cover if the entire time is given to these subjects.

The following topics are discussed in the book: the purpose and value of education, the importance of right attitude, dispatching school work on schedule time, making the best use of the memory, acquiring the habit of concentrating attention, creating the right atmosphere for study, conserving energy for study, the power of creative thinking, choosing a course, and acquiring a personality.

The book is well written. While the treatment is scholarly, technical terms have been avoided. The reviewer can recommend this text without reservation to teachers and principals for use in high schools.

CHARLES E. SKINNER

Some College Students and Their Problem, by LUELLA C. PRESSEY. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University Press, 1929, 180 pages.

If college teachers do not know what Dr. Pressey at the Ohio State has been doing for the college freshman these last few years, it is just too bad. This little book with its modest title is in keeping with her usual direct, practical method of attack. Instead of writing dismal treatises on orientation and how to study, she merely takes a few freshmen and teaches them how to help themselves. The little book is a case study of some forty freshmen telling what their difficulties were, the methods used to overcome the difficulties, and the results obtained. It is written both for freshmen and for the college teacher, who is often somewhat of a freshman himself professionally. It makes no pretense at being a complete treatise: but it is replete with suggestions and brand new information. Dean Hawkes has been telling us to learn college students before we teach them. Here is a chance to learn freshmen and for the freshman to learn of himself.

J. O. CREAGER

Orientation for College Freshmen, by ERNEST W. HAWKES and RALPH LESLIE JOHNS. New York: Ronald Press Company, 1929, 310 pages.

The writers of this book have furnished a suitable text for a college course on the increasingly popular and baffling topic of the orientation of the freshman. Orientation is here used in the sense of "adaptation to college life, vocations, and citizenship," about half the space being given to the first of these topics. The book is well planned from the viewpoint of a teaching text, using the outlining method of presentation and furnishing well-selected references at chapter ends. This method of treatment suggests the thought that perhaps the teaching method in such a course should be largely that of stimulating the freshman to orient himself through using this book as a *vade mecum* with the teacher as guide, philosopher, and friend. The reviewer after some years of service in the conventional attempts to orient freshmen by means of "orientation week" is convinced that the lecture method of filling the poor freshman full of good advice is worse than a delusion. Whether we should institute courses for credit in this subject, making out of it just one more academic hurdle to overcome, is a topic for consideration elsewhere. The book is an excellent contribution to a field much in need of further study.

J. O. CREAGER

Teaching and Learning in the Elementary School, by LOIS C. MOSSMAN. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1929, 292 pages.

This is one of several excellent books on the principles of elementary education which has come from the press in recent years. Ordinarily such a book concentrates on either the psychological or the philosophical approach. Miss Mossman has succeeded well in integrating the two approaches. Indeed, it is the opinion of this reviewer that from this point of view the book is outstanding. She has come somewhat closer than others to presenting principles and procedures in a way best fitted to induce healthy understanding and learning on the part of the teacher or prospective teacher who reads the book.

ROBERT K. SPEER

High School Achievement Test, by W. W. D. SONES and DAVID P. HARRY. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Company, 1929.

The survey test has proved itself of value in the testing program of the elementary school and the Sones-Harry test aims to serve the same purposes in the secondary school. The test consists of four parts: language and literature, 140 items; mathematics, 80 items; natural science,

80 items; social studies, 115 items. The authors recommend the use of the test for purposes of clarification and guidance, as a means of selecting students for college, and as a test of the academic preparation of college students who wish to do practice teaching.

Reliability figures are given from self-correlations and they are shown to be "at least .86."

There are several reasons for concluding that a score from this test has little significance beyond being a score from the test. As a measure for the educational proficiency of the subject, its results may be seriously questioned.

The offering of the high school is so complex that it is difficult to select valid items. These were selected by "specialists" in a university staff and were critically evaluated by college seniors. The correlations are not given with criteria other than the test itself.

The need for a survey test in high school is not evident. If standardized tests are to be used, it is likely that the testing program will call for the use of tests in the several fields which will best meet the needs of special groups of pupils. These tests will be selected with special objectives and abilities in mind.

With the validity of the items under a dense cloud; with the reliability of the test an unknown quantity; with the need for such a test at least questionable, there remains but little to recommend it.

FORREST E. LONG

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

The World Federation of Education Associations

The World Federation of Education Associations came into being in San Francisco in 1923, when the first World Conference on Education met at the instance of the Committee on Foreign Relations of the National Education Association. This conference was attended by about six hundred persons representing thirty racial groups and more than fifty nations.

The general purpose of the World Federation of Education Associations is to find the most direct and effective way of inculcating into the lives of rising generations the virtues which society needs. It does not seek to standardize education in the sixty-three sovereign countries, but to find those elements of education which are universal and apply them to the good of all nations.

New Social-Science Building at the University of Chicago

The Social-Science Building, made possible by a grant from the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial, was dedicated December 16 and 17, 1929. This building is to be used exclusively for social-science research and graduate-school activities of the social-science group. It is the center of the research enterprises, many of them coöperative undertakings, of the department of political science, economics, sociology, anthropology, history, philosophy, and the graduate school of social service administration. The building is both a laboratory and a workshop. It contains, besides research offices, statistical, psychological, anthropometric, and archaeological laboratories, seminar rooms, and map-making and exhibit rooms. The six social-science journals, including *The American Journal of Sociology*, published by the University of Chicago Press, will have their offices in this building.—*The American Journal of Sociology*, January, 1930.

A Unique Piece of Work

A unique piece of work has been done by a committee on elementary education of the New York State Council of Superintendents during the last few years in setting up the cardinal objectives in elementary education, along with a series of reports by classroom teachers illustrating ways and means of attaining them.

The objectives as well as the practice set up to attain them, represent the new approach to the problem of education. After these new objectives were agreed upon by the committee, they were sent out to selected school systems and practice schools in the normal schools of the State wherein ways and means were employed in carrying them out in the six grades of the elementary school. These methods or ways and means were reported to the committee and checked. They were then returned

to the original experimenters or practitioners for further evaluation. The committee is of the opinion that the results "show some evidence of the scientific method" as well as pointing the way to a "newer type of elementary school." This report is issued by the University of the State of New York, under date of October, 1929.

Professor Harvey W. Zorbaugh, of the department of educational sociology of the School of Education of New York University, and director of the curriculum on visiting teaching, is a member of the subcommittee on mental health of the White House Conference.

Dr. Frederic M. Thrasher, director of the Boys' Club Study and assistant professor of educational sociology, New York University, is a member of the Committee on Recreation and Physical Education of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection.

Dr. John L. Gillin of the University of Wisconsin, will teach in the department of sociology in the Summer Session of the University of Southern California.

Dr. Howard W. Odum, head of the sociology department of the University of North Carolina, was elected president of the American Sociological Society at the recent meeting in Washington. The next meeting of the American Sociological Society will be held at Detroit, Michigan, during the Christmas holidays, 1930-1931.

Professor Charles A. Ellwood, head of the department of sociology at the University of Missouri for more than two decades, has resigned his position to accept a similar position at Duke University, Durham, North Carolina. A new department of sociology is to be organized at Duke under Professor Ellwood's leadership. During the Summer School at New York University, Dr. Ellwood will give a course in "Education and Social Control" in the department of educational sociology.

CONTRIBUTORS' PAGE

Dr. Luther S. Cressman is a member of the department of sociology of the University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon. Professor Cressman received his bachelor's degree at Pennsylvania State College, and his master's and doctor's at Columbia. During his graduate study at Columbia he was associated with the instructional staffs of City College and the Seth Low Junior College of Brooklyn. During the year 1925-1926 he held a traveling fellowship in Europe from the General Theological Seminary of New York. Dr. Cressman is the author of *The Social Composition of the Rural Population in the United States*.

Miss Louise Dahlberg, a member of the teaching staff of Public School 146, Brooklyn, received her bachelor's degree from Hunter College. She has pursued graduate work at Columbia and New York Universities.

Dr. Iago Galdston, who as a trained physician became more interested in the teaching and public aspect of the medical service, at present main-

tains the following educational relationships: lecturer on educational sociology in the School of Education, New York University; lecturer on public health at the New York Homeopathic Medical College and Flower Hospital; special lecturer on health education at the New York Training School for Teachers; professor of social and public health, Fordham University; Fellow of the American Public Health Association

Mr. Arnold Levitas is a member of the staff of the Jamaica Continuation School. Mr. Levitas was born in Latvia, but has spent most of his life in America. He received his education in the New York public schools. He received his bachelor of laws degree from the New York Law School. He is now a student in New York University. His chief educational interest has been in trade and industrial education. He has had a large part in shaping the curricular activities in trade and industrial work in the New York City schools through his membership on numerous committees devoted to this kind of educational service.

MEMBERSHIP LIST OF THE NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY¹

Angell, Robert C., University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.

Arnett, Claude E., 125 Livingston Hall, Columbia University, New York City

Bamford, Edwin F., Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa.

Barker, Corinne M., 390 N. Broadway, Yonkers, N. Y.

Bengston, Caroline, Harvard, Nebraska

Bluhm, Solomon, Temple Ansche Chesed and Community Center, West End Avenue at 100th Street, New York City

Bogardus, Emory S., University of Southern California, Los Angeles, Cal.

Bowden, A. O., New Mexico State Teachers College, Silver City, N. M.

Brewer, John M., Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

Brunner, Edmund de S., Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City

Busch, Henry M., Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio

Byrne, Lee, 319 12th Avenue, S. E., Aberdeen, S. D.

Carpenter, T. P., 600 N. Euclid Avenue, Oak Park, Ill.

Cass, George W., State Teachers College, Mansfield, Pa.

Cavan, Jordan T., Rockford College, Rockford, Ill.

Cavan, Ruth S., 542 Seminary Street, Rockford, Ill.

Cawood, Margaret, 436 Charles Street, East Lansing, Mich.

Chapin, F. Stuart, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.

Clark, Willis W., University of Southern California, Los Angeles, Cal.

Clement, Stephen C., State Teachers College, Buffalo, N. Y.

Clow, Frederick R., 144 Elmwood Avenue, Oshkosh, Wis.

Conklin, Agnes M., New York University, New York City

Consistre, Marie J.

¹ January 24, 1930. In future issues of THE JOURNAL new members will be listed.

- Dail, John B., 13665 Staepel Avenue, Detroit, Mich.
Dickinson, F. W., Mount St. Joseph College, Mount St. Joseph, Ohio
Ellwood, Charles A., University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.
Sister Evaline Dee, College of Mount St. Joseph, Mount St. Joseph, Ohio
Everett, Edith M., 1421 Race Street, Philadelphia, Pa.
Faris, Ellsworth, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
Finney, Ross L., University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.
Fruit, H. D., Washington, D. C.
Garwood, L. E., Coe College, Cedar Rapids, Iowa
Gast, Ira M., New York University, New York City
George, Julia, 995 Market Street, Room 1120, San Francisco, Cal.
Good, Alvin, State Normal College, Natchitoches, La.
Grote, Caroline, State Teachers College, Monroe Hall, Macomb, Ill.
Grove, Elsa Butler, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City
Hammer, Irwin A., University of Omaha, Omaha, Neb.
Harap, Henry, Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio
Hayes, Wayland J., Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tenn.
Holmes, Henry W., Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.
Holton, Edwin L., Kansas State Agricultural College, Manhattan, Kan.
Hosey, Gertrude, Central Missouri State Teachers College, Warrensburg, Mo.
Hypes, J. L., Connecticut Agricultural College, Storrs, Conn.
Inquiry, The, per H. J. Mayers, 129 East 52d Street, New York City
Jacobs, Emory G., State Normal School, New Paltz, N. Y.
Jeddeloh, Henry J., Ohio University, Athens, Ohio
Jones, David D., Bennett College, Greensboro, N. C.
Kansas State Teachers College (Porter Library), Pittsburg, Kan.
Kerby, William J., Catholic University, Washington, D. C.
Kerr, Willis H., Claremont College, Claremont, Cal.
Kimmel, W. G., University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.
Kinneman, John A., State Normal University, Normal, Ill.
Kriner, Harry L., State Teachers College, California, Pa.
Kulp, Daniel H., II, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City
Landis, Benson Y., 105 East 22d Street, New York City
Sister Leona, College of Mount St. Joseph, Mount St. Joseph, Ohio
Lewis, Hallett N., 40 East 64th Street, New York City
Ludlow, Josephine B., Blewett Intermediate School, St. Louis, Mo.
McLean, Jessie, Central State Teachers College, Mt. Pleasant, Mich.
Mackaye, David L., Tulare Union High School, Tulare, Cal.
Sister Mary Alexine, College of Mount St. Joseph, Mount St. Joseph, Ohio
Sister Mary Zoe, College of Mount St. Joseph, Mount St. Joseph, Ohio
Maximon, Selma C., 3925 Gosman Avenue, Long Island City, N. Y.

- Melvin, Mrs. Blanche M., State College of Agriculture, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.
- Meriam, J. L., University of Southern California, Los Angeles, Cal.
- Merwin, Bruce W., Southern Illinois Teachers College, Carbondale, Ill.
- Mills, Albert P., State Normal School, Oneonta, N. Y.
- Nathan, Dr. Nathan ben, 15 Intervale Street, Roxbury, Mass.
- Neumann, George B., State Teachers College, Buffalo, N. Y.
- Newmark, David, Philadelphia Normal School, 13th and Spring Garden Streets, Philadelphia, Pa.
- Oppenlander, Helen S., 222 East 79th Street, New York City
- Parkhurst, Jessie W., 2588 Seventh Avenue, New York City
- Patterson, John, Superintendent of Village Schools, Methodist Mission, Vikarabad, Deccan, India
- Payne, E. George, New York University, New York City
- Peters, Charles C., Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa.
- Power, Mary S., Official Registry for Nurses, 149 West 12th Street, New York City
- Pratt, Anna B., 1421 Race Street, Philadelphia, Pa.
- Ratzlaff, Ida E., 106 Morningside Drive, New York City
- Rhoton, A. L., Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa.
- Robbins, C. L., State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa
- Roper, M. Wesley, Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia, Kan.
- Ruediger, W. C., George Washington University, Washington, D. C.
- Rutledge, Samuel A., Jamaica College for Teachers, Jamaica, L. I., N. Y.
- Sackett, Hermon, State Teachers College, Edinboro, Pa.
- Schlorff, Paul W., 1208 Hudson Street, Hoboken, N. J.
- Simmons, Frederick J., State Normal School, Keene, N. H.
- Slotter, Caroline A., 2959 North 12th Street, Philadelphia, Pa.
- Smith, Walter R., University of Kansas, Columbia, Kan.
- Snedden, David, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City
- Spanner, Bess B., 225 East 63rd Street, New York City
- Stalcup, Benjamin F., New York University, New York City
- Stokes, Anna M., 5812 Addison Street, Irving Park Station, Chicago, Ill.
- Sullivan, Daniel Richard, Seton Hill College, Greensburg, Pa.
- Suzzallo, Henry, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City
- Thrasher, Frederic M., New York University, New York City
- Tilley, Mrs. Margaret, 509 West 121st Street, New York City
- Whisler, Arthur V., State Normal School, Geneseo, N. Y.
- Willard, D. W., George Washington University, Washington, D. C.
- Williams, Joseph T., Whittier College, Whittier, Cal.
- Wirth, Louis, Tulane University, New Orleans, La.
- Withers, John W., New York University, New York City
- Zeleny, L. D., St. Cloud State Teachers College, St. Cloud, Minn.
- Zerbe, Hobson M., 279 Wyoming Avenue, Kingston, Pa.

